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ABSTRACT

This document contains four symposium papers on managers, learning, and human resource development (HRD). "Expatriate Managers and HRD: The Missing Link" (Teresa M. Palmer, Iris I. Varner) reviews the literature on selection, training, retention, and organizational strategy related to expatriate assignments and presents a model that ties international HRD to organizations' strategic goals and mission. "Managerial Practices to Facilitate Learning within Learning Organizations" (Andrea D. Ellinger) reports selected findings of a qualitative critical incident study of the multiple ways managers who perceive themselves to be facilitators of learning actually facilitate employee learning. "Operationalizing the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence" (Lisa Hanes Netzley, Shari L. Peterson) discusses the processes that were used to validate the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence, which focuses on the role of the organization in integrating employees into an organization and promoting their persistence. "Critical Thinking, Developmental Learning, and Adaptive Flexibility in Organizational Leaders" (Robert Duchesne) reports on a study that examined how developmental learning and adaptive flexibility related to the level of critical thinking in a sample of 119 organizational leaders. The study established years of education as the only significant predictor of critical thinking in the leaders involved. (MN)

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Managers and Learning

Chair: Val Kosky, College of St. Catherine

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Expatriate Managers and HRD: The Missing Link

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Despite considerable research in the area of expatriate assignments, the failure rate continues to be high. This paper reviews the literature on selection, training, retention, and organizational strategy related to expatriate assignments. The authors present a model that ties international human resource development to the strategic goals and mission of the organization.

Keywords: Expatriate Managers, Expatriate Training

Since the late 1970s, the world has experienced extraordinary growth in global business due to the reduction/removal of trade barriers and improved communication. In addition to the growth in total volume of world business, the number of businesses involved in international ventures and the importance of those international ventures to the organizations' well-being have grown markedly. As a result of these developments many of these businesses have increased their numbers of expatriate managers along with this increased focus on global operations. During this same period, there has also been a tremendous growth in the volume of literature addressing issues related to expatriate assignments in management. Despite the considerable increase in literature (much of it research-based), the level of concern about the effectiveness of expatriate managers' performance appears to be undiminished. Shay and Tracey (1997) found that 25 to 40 percent of American expatriates return early if posted to developed countries and that the failure rate increased to 70 percent if the expatriate was posted to a developing country. These rates were similar to those found in other studies reported over more than the last 20 years (Baker and Ivancevich, 1971; Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Deshpande and Viswesvaran, 1992; Tung, 1981). The explicit costs of such early returns vary, but various studies suggested that each such failure costs the organization between $55,000 and $1 million (Copeland and Griggs, 1985; Deshpande and Viswesvaran, 1992; Harris and Moran, 1987; Shay and Tracey, 1997). This represents a significant expense to the organizations involved and does not include the costs associated with the possible loss of human capital investment if the organization loses the expatriate manager as a result of the incident. A variety of studies examine the causes of expatriate failure and suggest ways of improving the success of expatriate assignments (Black and Mendenhall, 1989; Inkson, et al., 1997; Katz and Seifer, 1996; Nicholson, Stepina, and Hochwarter, 1990; Shay and Tracey, 1997). While these and numerous other studies support the potential of training to improving expatriate performance and reducing of the failure rate, additional studies document how little training is actually provided to expatriates. Tung (1981) found that 32 percent of companies provide training for foreign assignments. Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou (1987) believe that number to be as low as 10 percent. They go on to suggest that the reasons that organizations do not use training more often to prepare managers for expatriate assignments are linked to top management's perceptions that such training is unnecessary, ineffective, inconvenient or difficult to find, and too costly.

Research Question

This paper addresses the following research question:

> What do we know from research about the factors related to the successful/unsuccessful performance of expatriate managers?

Additionally, we propose a model for linking HRD decisions to overall organizational strategy when making decisions related to the use and preparation of expatriates.

Factors Related to the Success and Failure of International Assignments

Success in international assignments has not been clearly defined in the literature. In practice, success is most commonly inferred as the absence of failure. Numerous studies address desirable attitudes for expatriate managers and/or identify organizational activities that are associated with improved performance. In theory, there are many ways of judging the failure of international assignments. In most of the research, failure falls into one of these three categories: failure based on early return from the assignment, failure based on inadequate performance of the

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expatriate while on the assignment, and failure based on loss of human capital to the organization related to the international assignment. These are illustrated in the following review of literature

Tung's (1981) early research on expatriate managers identified the three most common reasons that expatriates returned early from an assignment as: (1) the spouse couldn't adapt to the new culture, (2) the manager couldn't adapt to the new culture, and (3) the family experienced serious problems related to the assignment. In Shay and Tracey's (1997) study of expatriate managers in the hotel industry, findings of the reasons for failure in overseas assignments were consistent with Tung's (1981) first two reasons. But the third most important reason for the failure emerging from their study was the personal or emotional immaturity of the manager. Shay and Tracey (1997) suggested that the importance of relational and social skills in the hotel industry may be greater than for other industries. Five of the top six ranked attributes desirable in expatriate managers were associated with interpersonal and social skills rather than technical skills. They research suggested that there may be differences among industries in the factors that affect success and failure of expatriate assignments.

Selection and Training

Both Tung (1982) and Katz and Seifer (1996) identified three options for staffing overseas positions, parent country nationals, host country nationals, and third country nationals. There are a variety of factors identified as affecting the staffing decision, often dependent upon the nature of the position. Traditionally, the primary consideration in selection has been technical expertise. Numerous studies have suggested that interpersonal skills, family situation, relational abilities, environmental factors, and personality could reasonably be included in selection criteria (Guzzo, Noonan and Elron, 1994; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1987; Tung, 1981, 1982). Nicholson, Stepina, and Hochwarter (1990) suggested that companies should consider matching characteristics of potential expatriates with the cultural profile of the host country. While good training can contribute to enhanced cultural awareness and adaptability, it is not the only way of acquiring such knowledge and skills. Overseas experience whether through programs such as the American Field Service (AFS) or as an independent personal experience, contributes to enhanced cultural understanding (Inkson, et al., 1997; Wilson, 1998). The Inkson (1997) study identifies characteristics of those acquiring overseas experience including the view of cultural experience as important as work, individual is self supporting and curiosity driven, that suggest that overseas experience may be a factor that organizations should consider in the selection process for expatriate assignments. Regardless of the staffing methods used, training is necessary to maximize positive outcomes from overseas assignments.

There is an impressive body of literature on selecting and training managers for international assignments. Researchers have developed models based on learning theory and cognitive processes (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Guzzo, Noonan, and Elron, 1994; Mendenhall and Wiley, 1994; Nicholson, Stepina, and Hochwarter, 1990) getting away from anecdotal information to theory based arguments for training. Yet, many of the problems identified in the 80's such as inadequate selection procedures, premature departure from foreign assignments, ineffectiveness of expatriates, family problems and influences on job performance are still with us today (Inkson et al.,1997; Nicholson, Stepina, and Hochwarter, 1990; Shay and Tracey, 1997).

Training, and particularly cross cultural training, will allow expatriates to adjust to different cultures more rapidly and, as a result, will enhance their performance in the new environment (see Deshpande). Nicholson, Stepina, and Hochwarter (1990) argue that expatriates must be prepared in three areas – technical, cognitive, and emotional, in order to succeed. They believe that training will sensitize the expatriate to the target culture and as a result, the expatriate will be more effectively socialized which is in the interest of both the expatriate and the company. Expatriates must learn a whole new set of complex rules that apply to the host culture, yet the monocultural expatriate does usually not know how to decipher the rules, let alone adjust to them (Mendenhall and Wiley, 1994). In addition, companies seldom match the characteristics of a potential expatriate with the cultural profile of the host country (Nicholson, Stepina, and Hochwarter, 1990).

There seems to be an agreement that this could be established through training. Based on research, training is believed to reduce the failure rate by 14 percent. Therefore, it is assumed and argued that training is beneficial and companies should provide such training. However, many managers still believe that a good manager is a good manager anywhere; what counts is technical ability rather than cultural sensitivity (Black & Mendenhall, 1989; Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou, 1987).

Employee Retention

Like other kinds of training, employer provided training to prepare employees for expatriate assignments represents an investment in human capital. Such training usually consists of two types, general training and company specific training. General training increases the employee's marginal productivity equally to the employer providing the training and to other employers. Company specific training increases the employee's marginal productivity only to the current employer (Becker, 1993). The greatest proportion of the employer paid training associated with expatriate assignments is general in nature. This may account in part for the apparent reluctance on the part of many employers to adequately prepare their expatriates (and, perhaps, their families) to effectively complete their overseas assignments. Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou (1987) list six reasons why companies are reluctant to provide adequate training for international assignments. In summary, they are: perceived ineffectiveness of such programs by both, management and trainees, lack of time from selection to posting for meaningful training, trend to employ host country nationals, too costly for short term assignments, no perceived need by executives. In short, the perception is that such programs are too costly, not effective, and not necessary. If that is what executive actually believe, no model for training, no matter how good, will convince them that they should invest in such training.

Failure to train, lack of support, and ineffective repatriation for employees after the overseas assignments contributes to the loss of employees and the company's significant human capital investment in them. The status of the psychological contact between employees and expatriates mediates the relationship between the employee practice and the retention of expatriates (Guzzo, Noonan, and Elron, 1994). What an employer does to support an employee during an expatriate assignment and during repatriation influences the employee's decision to remain with the employer or leave during or after the assignment.

Organizational Strategy

The trend to polycentric staffing has given many managers the feeling that all they need to do is hire host country nationals, and their intercultural problems will go away or be solved easily (Kobrin, 1988; Tung, 1981). After all, many foreigners have received MBAs from American universities. They speak English; they have lived in the U.S. for several years, and they know their home turf. This appears much more cost effective than training an American to do that same work. The question of course is whether this will solve the current problem and help in global competition. Kobrin (1988) maintains that the changes in staffing have an impact on strategic management in four distinct areas: the development of corporate worldwide objectives, employee identification with the entire organization rather than just a local subsidiary, relationship between subsidiaries and headquarters, internationalization of home country employees. Kobrin is one of the few researchers who explicitly ties the need for training to the overall corporate strategy. In his view, the successful global organization will need people who have a grasp of the global environment and how the corporation fits into this. The need for direct social contact in the host environment is not just nice to have but essential in reaching corporate goals. Training then, if one follows Kobrin's argument, is necessary to meet corporate objectives of the global firm. The training needs to help the expatriate to learn the appropriate culture of the subsidiary country and the subsidiary organization while at the same time understanding the overall corporate goals and mission (Black and Mendenhall, 1989; Katz and Seifer, 1996).

A Proposed Model of Organizational Decision Making

Human resource decisions related to an organization's international operations are very complex. There are many factors that can affect those decisions and not all of them are predictable and controllable by the organization. The model for organizational decision making shown in Figure 1 represents the process that should guide organizations in making decisions about how to staff international positions; how to select, prepare for expatriation, and repatriate staff and integrate international experience into career paths within the organization. There are three stages that occur in sequential order. Decisions made in stages 2 and 3 are dependent on decisions made in earlier stages. The model we present here links decisions about career development, training, and organization development to the mission of the organization.

In stage 1, the organization must assure that its international human resource decisions are in alignment with overall organization mission and goals. On the very low end of the continuum of criticality/instrumentality might be the expectation that the organization sees international operations as an occasional source of sales and/or supply opportunities that are very flexible and may be expected to change frequently with market changes both at

home and abroad. A domestic company that sells its occasional oversupply to buyers in other countries would fit here. On the very high end of the continuum, we would expect to find organizations that see international operations as critical to the organization's overall success and have a high degree of interdependence between domestic and international operations. These organizations respond to local market needs while integrating global operations for organizational effectiveness. A manufacturing company that produces and markets products to the specifications of numerous countries while allocating production and purchasing supplies to take advantage of world market differentials would fit here. Long range goals and objectives reflect the expectation that the importance of international operations to the organization would remain constant or grow.

Some of the indicators of the degree of criticality/instrumentality include the following questions.
How important are non-domestic markets and suppliers to the success of the organization? What do the mission and goals say about the international operations? What proportion of the revenues/profits are tied to international operations? What is the degree of interdependence between the organization's domestic and international operations? These can range from contracts of limited scope and duration to significant corporate investment in many countries. Are the planned relationships between the organization and it's
international operations/partners short term or long term?

After careful assessment of the importance of international operations to the organization's mission, goals, and objectives, it is time to move to stage 2, decisions.

The position of an organization on the criticality/instrumentality continuum in stage 1 will shape the nature of international assignments within the organization. Those that are very low in stage 1are far more likely to limit assignments to short terms and give expatriates limited responsibilities. They are also more likely to place heavier reliance on host country nationals and third country nationals than organizations on the very high end of the scale. They may outsource significant parts of their international operations to host country companies. The higher the organization's position on the criticality/instrumentality scale, the more likely it is to have expatriate positions of longer term (3 to 5 years) and greater responsibility in addition to a greater number of positions at a variety of positions on
the scope and term of assignments continuum. If the perceived importance of the international operations is high, the organization should provide a variety of opportunities for it's employees to gain international experience, starting early in the employees careers so that they are better prepared for the longer term.
assignments with broad responsibilities later in their careers. Additionally, international expertise and experience should be factored into career ladders and expectations for managers in companies that are higher on the continuum in stage one.

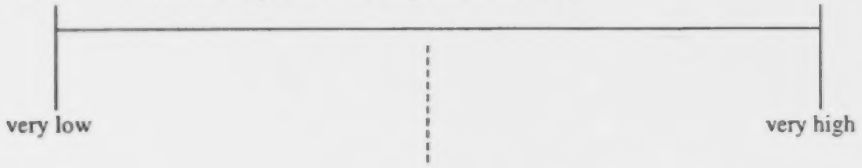
Stage 3 focuses on the organization's decision related to the preparation for and support of the expatriate. Decisions here will be based upon the importance of international assignments to the organization's overall mission and goals and the nature, duration and type of the particular assignment. On the low end of the scale might be a short term technical assignment with narrow focus for which travel arrangements and local contacts are provided for the employee, who also receives a briefing related to the assignment itself. At the other end of the scale would be a multi year expatriate assignment with broad responsibilities, such as an operations manager for a production facility. One would expect the organization to provide a package including travel and relocation assistance for the employee and his/her family, plus a significant amount of training and preparation related to the assignment, and training in the language, culture, and business practices in the new location. Some language and cultural training may also be provided to the family. Additionally, repatriation will be supported by the organization, and the knowledge and skill gained by the expatriate during the assignment will be used by the organization upon repatriation. International assignments will be integrated into the career tracks within the organization

This model presents a systematic approach that ties human resource development to the mission and operations of the firm. Specific training decisions should be made only after the three stages have been completed. This process should be an integral part of any high performance human resource system.

Figure 1 Organizational Decision Making Model for International Staffing

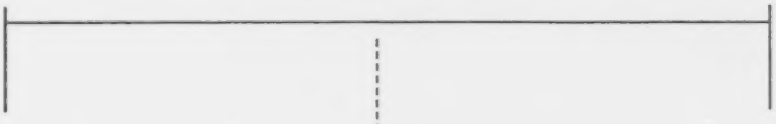
Stage 1 : Determine the importance of international operations to the organization's mission and goals.

Continuum: Perceived degree of criticality/ instrumentality



Stage 2: Determine the Nature of International Assignments

Continuum: Scope and term of assignments



- short term
- focused responsibility

- long term
- broad responsibility

Stage 3: Determine Amount of Human Capital Investment

Continuum: Preparation for international assignments and integration of assignments into career development.

- minimal preparation for job specific assignment
- travel assistance

- extensive preparation and support for assignments
- international assignments integrated into career tracks within organizations

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Managerial Practices to Facilitate Learning Within Learning Organizations

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This paper reports some of the findings from a larger qualitative critical incident study that was designed to investigate the multiple ways managers facilitate the learning of their employees when they perceive themselves to be facilitators of learning. Managerial beliefs which undergird behavior, the catalysts for learning, and the outcomes associated with learning were also examined, however, only the findings associated with managers' behaviors will be presented.

Keywords: Learning Organization, Coaching, Facilitating Learning

Many organizations are being challenged to remain competitive in a turbulent global business environment through continuous innovation, knowledge creation, and sustained organization-wide learning (Nonaka, 1991; Senge, 1990a; Watkins & Marsick, 1993, 1996a, 1996b). Given this challenge to create learning organizations, several scholars have articulated the need for empirical research on how managers can build learning capability (Ulrich, Von Glinow & Jick, 1993), and the management practices and their configurations that can help to guide managers in their efforts to build learning organizations (Slater & Narver, 1994).

At the heart of the learning organization is the enhanced capacity for continuous learning (Watkins & Marsick, 1993). Continuous learning represents an integration of formal and informal learning. Although trainers and human resource developers have traditionally been charged with providing formal learning, several scholars and practitioners are suggesting that trainers and human resource developers will become consultants, and designers of learning interventions. The learning organization literature has also speculated that managers will be challenged to assume roles as teachers (Senge, 1990a, 1990b; Wisdom & Denton, 1991) coaches (Conger, 1993, Evered & Selman, 1989; Frohman, 1978, Marsh, 1992, McGill & Slocum, 1998; Slater & Narver, 1995), educators (Antonioni, 1994), and facilitators (Weaver & Farrell, 1997). Watkins and Marsick (1992, 1993) contend that "human resource developers can extend their impact in almost exponential fashion by working with all employees to make self-managed learning more effective and by creating new ways for people to share what they learn" (p. 21). At the same time, they can work with managers to create a culture for learning, and help build the infrastructure for learning. Additionally, they can provide coaching and train-the-trainer expertise to managers who will increasingly have the task of providing training and development to their employees (McLagan, 1996; Ulrich, Brockbank, Yeung & Lake, 1995; Watkins & Marsick, 1993). This trend represents a shift away from formal instructor provided training and development to informal, just in time learning which is integrated with work. Despite all of the conceptions and descriptions of these changing roles for managers, little empirical research has examined the dramatically altered realities of managerial work (Kanter, 1989). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the multiple ways that managers facilitate the learning of their employees when they perceive themselves to be facilitators of learning within learning organizations (Ellinger, 1997). Although four research questions guided the overall study, the following question is addressed in this paper:

(1) What are the types of behaviors that contribute to the role of managers as facilitators of learning?

Conceptual Framework

An adaptation of the Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick model (1970) and Clawson's (1992) Person-Role Model formed the conceptual model which served as the framework for the study. The Campell et al. model, the person-process-product model (Morse & Wagner, 1978), is a heuristic model which is a schematic portrayal of factors determining the expression of managerial behaviors. The person in this model refers to an individual enacting a role. This person brings belief systems that are influenced by the individual's characteristics, abilities, and developmental experiences to the role he or she is stepping into. The process refers to the person's on-the-job behaviors and activities, and the product refers to the outcomes associated with enacting the behavior. The Campbell et al. model makes it apparent that the person's behavior is directed by many different factors and by the interactions between them. Clawson's model differs slightly in that she suggests that multiple behavior types inform the delineation of a person's role.

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For this study, within the context of learning organizations, the managers' belief systems are thought to influence the manager's adoption of the role of facilitator of learning. In adopting this role and serving as a facilitator of learning, it was thought that managers engage in learning episodes with their employees that are initiated by catalysts for learning. Once a learning episode is initiated, it was thought that managers would execute behaviors that could be categorized into behavior types that help to define the role of facilitator of learning. It was anticipated that outcomes would be associated with the learning episodes for learners, managers, and possibly the organization. This model was furnished as a point of reference, a framework for the study, but was not empirically tested.

Methodology

The design of the research study was a descriptive qualitative approach using the Critical Incident Technique (Flanagan, 1954) and semi-structured interviews (Kvale, 1996) as the primary methods of data collection.

In Action: Creating the Learning Organization (Watkins & Marsick, 1996b), a casebook published by the American Society for Training and Development served as the population from which a purposeful sample of five organizations was drawn using intensity sampling selection strategies (Patton, 1990). Four organizations actually participated in the study, and through an expert nomination process, twelve managers were recommended to the researcher as being exemplary facilitators of learning within their respective organizations. The twelve managers agreed to participate in the study, and in-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted with each manager which averaged at least two hours in length. The managers were asked to describe at least four effective and/or ineffective critical incidents when they perceived themselves to be facilitating their employees' learning. The interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim by the researcher. An average of 4.6 incidents was collected from each manager which resulted in a total of 56 critical incidents.

Content analysis was employed to initially analyze the data (Weber, 1990). The unit of analysis was the critical incident, and the sentence was selected as the unit of analysis among content coding unit options within the critical incidents. All sentences within the data set were rigorously reviewed and those meeting the framework category definition of 'behaviors' formed this category. A total of 322 sentences, or data strips were identified that met the definitional criteria for 'behaviors.' Then, using a file card approach recommended by Guba and Lincoln (1981), the data strips in this category were thematically classified using open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). To ensure internal consistency, member checking was employed (Merriam & Simpson, 1995). Additionally, an external reviewer with fifteen years of managerial experience also participated in the coding process. The researcher and external reviewer sorted the file cards independently. The results of the open coding process were recorded and compared. Although there was general consistency among the themes that emerged, multiple sorts were done to reconcile minor discrepancies until complete consensus was achieved between the researcher and external reviewer. This process helped to establish reliability in coding of emergent themes to achieve semantic validity (Weber, 1990).

Findings and Discussion

A total of three hundred twenty two (322) data strips coded as behaviors (37.2% of the total number of data strips) were identified within the entire data set which consisted of a total of eight hundred sixty-six data strips (866).. These behaviors represented actions, or sets of actions that the manager employed when he/she was engaged in facilitating learning. Thirteen (13) themes emerged within the framework category of behaviors and formed two clusters of behaviors. These themes represent types of behaviors, or sets of behaviors that managers enacted as facilitators of learning. Figure 1 depicts these two clusters and the thirteen behavior sets which define the role of facilitator of learning for this study. Based upon the data, these behavior sets may be operationalized as managers' empowering behaviors and their facilitating behaviors. These behavior sets were observed consistently in the critical incidents reported by all of the managers in the study, not only those managers affiliated with learning organization initiatives for the longest period of time. It is important to note that 'coaching' was used synonymously with 'facilitating learning' by 11 of the 12 managers participating in the study, therefore, their 'coaching' terminology is used in this paper.

Clusters of Behavior Sets

Empowering	Facilitating
Holding Back -- Not Providing the Answers	Creating and Promoting a Learning Environment
Question Framing to Encourage Employees to Think Through Issues	Broadening Employees' Perspectives -- Getting Them to See Things Differently
Transferring Ownership to Employees	Stepping Into Other to Shift Perspectives
Being a Resource -- Removing Obstacles	Using Analogies, Scenarios, and Examples
	Setting and Communicating Expectations -- Fitting into the Big Picture
	Working It Out Together -- Talking it Through
	Engaging Others to Facilitate Learning
	Providing Feedback to Employees
	Soliciting Feedback from Employees

Figure 1. Clusters of behavior sets associated with the role of facilitator of learning
Source: Ellinger, 1997

Although it can be argued that managers who adopt and assume the role of facilitator of learning, or coach still maintain the potential to exercise considerable control over their employees because of the position and authority power they possess, this study suggests that managers attempt to facilitate learning for their employees by moving toward an empowerment paradigm which is demonstrated in the empowering behaviors they enact. In this study, facilitators of learning used both empowering and facilitating behaviors with their employees. As Figure 1 depicts, managers enacted four types of Empowering behavior sets and nine types of Facilitating behavior sets when they perceived themselves to be facilitating learning. Grounded in the data, the cluster of Empowering behavior sets referred to managers' behaviors that appeared to encourage employees to assume personal responsibility and accountability. Managers alluded to not providing solutions or answers to employees, and often responded to questions by asking different, thought provoking questions to encourage their employees to derive their own solutions. Whereas the Empowering cluster was predominantly oriented towards managers' behaviors of giving more power and authority to employees, the cluster of Facilitating behavior sets was slightly different. In this cluster grounded in the data, the notion of Facilitating behaviors appeared to be oriented towards managers' behaviors that promoted new levels of understanding, new perspectives, and offered guidance and support to their employees to foster learning and development.

The emergence of these thirteen behavior sets is significant because most managerial behavior taxonomies have captured the more formal aspects of training and instructing subordinates associated with the concept of facilitating learning (Borman & Brush, 1993; Kraut, Pedigro, McKenna, & Dunnette, 1989; Mintzberg, 1973, 1990; Yukl, 1981, 1989, 1994). Aside from suggesting that managers engage in behaviors that coach, mentor, train and develop employees, few, if any of these taxonomies have provided specific descriptions of the actual behaviors that are manifested in coaching, mentoring, training and developing employees.

The behaviors that managers reported they enacted when they perceived themselves to be serving as facilitators or learning, or coaches were somewhat different from the traditional components of coaching models that have been reported in the literature. Traditional coaching models generally incorporate the concept of interactive communication in which the coach listens, gives feedback, and clarifies expectations of the employee (Evered & Selman, 1989). Schelling's (in Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993, 1994) research identified eight coaching skills that included communicating clear sales objectives, providing regular performance feedback, and providing help, training, and guidance. While many of the approaches to coaching in the literature are oriented to problem solving and performance improvement, the findings from this study are distinct in that they focus more on the learning component from which improved performance appears to be a by-product.

The specific behaviors in this study that are similar to some of those behaviors or skills identified in the coaching literature include "setting and communicating expectations -- fitting into the big picture," and "providing feedback to employees" (Evered & Selman, 1989; Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993, 1994; Marsh, 1992; Yukl, 1994). Yukl's (1994) guidelines for coaching include explaining why additional training is relevant, and encouraging application of skills on the job. His guidelines for mentoring include encouraging enrollment in

relevant training programs, providing special opportunities for skill development and helping the employees learn from experience. Despite some of the similarities with Yukl (1994), there were distinguishing factors associated with "setting and communicating expectations -- fitting into the big picture" and "providing feedback to employees" in this study. Setting expectations in this study also included the concept of communicating the importance of these expectations and objectives so that employees would understand why objectives were important and how their efforts in meeting objectives impacted the organization. This idea of managers explaining how employees fit into the big picture was a subtle, but important difference.

Despite the emergence of the concept of giving feedback which is typically a component in most coaching models, in this study, three variations of providing feedback were reported by managers: observational, reflective, and third-party feedback. Managers provided observational feedback in which they related observing behavior that could be detrimental to the employee, or provided feedback in terms of performance reviews about observed strengths and areas for future development. Managers also engaged in providing reflective feedback in which they 'held the mirror' so that employees could make their own assessments about how their behavior impacted others within the organization. The third type of feedback managers provided was third-party feedback in which managers would solicit feedback from the employee's internal customers, or through anonymous survey feedback instruments that the manager and employee would create together. Another distinct behavior included soliciting feedback from their employees to gauge if employees were having problems or were comfortable performing their work related tasks. Orth, Wilkinson and Benfari (1987) use the terms of coach and mentor interchangeably, however, they contend that coaches and mentors must have observational skills to monitor an employee's performance. This skill set is most closely aligned with the concept of observational feedback in the current study.

Orth et al. (1987) contend that mentors also need to possess interviewing skills in which they ask open-ended, closed, and reflective questions to employees to encourage the employees to think, or rethink what he or she may not have considered previously. Similarly, behaviors reported by managers in the current study related to the themes of "question framing to encourage employees to think through issues" and "using analogies, scenarios, and examples" to facilitate employees' learning. Rather than providing solutions, managers in the current study would frame and pose questions to their employees to encourage them to think through solutions themselves. Generally, the types of questions managers posed related to having employees consider the potential consequences of their actions, or to anticipate the results of their actions within specific contexts. Providing examples and analogies were used to help employees see how similar approaches could be applied in their own circumstances, without the managers directing or imposing specific solutions.

Three additional behaviors which managers enacted included "holding back -- not providing the answers", "being a resource -- removing obstacles" and "transferring ownership to employees." Although these behaviors would appear to be implicit in the concept of coaching, managers in this study specifically made it clear to their employees that they would provide help, but would not assume the employees' responsibilities. Managers specifically indicated that they would not provide answers, and would not perform employees tasks.

Hout and Carter (1995) and Barlett and Ghoshal (1995) have suggested that the task of management is to adopt a people-oriented approach to management, and that relationships and communication will become increasingly important within organizations. The theme of "working it out together --- talking it through" corresponds to their findings as managers in the current study engaged in one-on-one or work group based conversations designed to talk through issues and reach consensus about the overall approach. Managers acted in highly facilitative capacities when they engaged this type of behavior to facilitate learning.

Two additional themes new to the coaching literature include: "stepping into other to shift perspectives" and "broadening employees' perspectives -- getting them to see things differently." These behaviors are significant because they connect to the organizational learning literature and the learning organization literature. Senge (1990a, 1990b) and Argyris (1977) acknowledge that surfacing mental models and closely held assumptions can facilitate individual learning. Senge would suggest that leaders in the learning organization have a responsibility to surface and test mental models to facilitate individual learning which then has the potential to effect the organization more broadly. Smiley (1992) has suggested that managers should become schemata modifiers. Engaging in these behaviors may help managers to understand why employees behave as they do, and ultimately help to change their cognitive processes. Managers attempted to encourage employees to step out of their own mental frames and step into another person's mental frame. This was done to encourage employees to think differently from a perspective other than their own. This type of behavior was also used by managers to view the world from the employees' perspectives. This theme of "stepping into other to shift perspectives" differs from "broadening employees' perspectives -- getting them to see things differently" in that the behaviors managers engaged to broaden employees perspectives included providing exposure to other facets of the organization through work rotations and other activities.

A final theme reported by managers was "creating and promoting a learning environment." This theme corresponds to the literature on the learning organization in which managers are encouraged to create continuous learning opportunities, and establish systems that capture and share learning (Watkins & Marsick, 1993, 1996a, 1996b). Here, managers reported their activities as attempting to build learning departments by actively engaging in department meetings, fostering mentoring relationships among employees, and creating informal learning opportunities such as job matrices and participation in interview processes.

Some of the behaviors that managers articulated when they served as facilitators of learning are variations of some of the components that have been identified within existing coaching models. However, collectively these behaviors present a detailed view of how coaching can be facilitated informally in organizations by managers. These behaviors add a deeper dimension to existing managerial taxonomies and further elucidate what is meant by the broad terminology of coaching.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study that should be addressed. One of the limitations of this study was obtaining managers' perceptions of the behaviors they enacted when they perceived themselves to be facilitating learning using the critical incident technique. It is possible that employees may disagree with their managers' perceptions. However, the intent of this qualitative study was to seek understanding of this phenomenon from managers perceived to be exemplary facilitators of learning based upon their perceptions of the ways in which they facilitate the learning of their employees. This study is also a purposeful sample of twelve managers, therefore, generalizability is limited and this study does not purport to address all of the factors associated with how managers can build learning organizations. Lastly, the number of critical incidents collected is adequate for an exploratory study, however, expanding the sample size and volume of critical incidents is recommended to further develop the classification system.

Contributions and Future Research

This study provided insight into the ways in which managers facilitate the learning of their employees in learning organizations. Despite some of the limitations, there are several implications for practice and research.

Implications for Practice

This study is relevant to the management, adult education, and human resource development fields for a number of reasons. The learning organization literature has speculated that managers and leaders' roles will continue to change in organizations seeking to become more learning oriented. Therefore, as managers and leaders assume roles that include more teaching, coaching, education, and development responsibilities, trainers and human resource development practitioners traditionally responsible for such training, coaching, and development functions may no longer be considered the sole providers of these services, but part of a much broader learning infrastructure. As a result, it is possible that an increasing number of the adult educators, trainers, and developers in the workplace will be managers and leaders. Watkins and Marsick (1992, p. 128) have acknowledged that "experiments in teaching managers to be facilitators, coaches, interpreters and guides hold promise." This study provides trainers and human resource development professionals with thirteen behaviorally grounded behavior sets that help to define the role of facilitator of learning which can be used within organizations to help managers become more skilled at facilitating learning. These behavior sets can be integrated with existing coaching models, and incorporated into the content of management development programs.

Implications for Research

The findings from this study extend the current research on managerial behaviors in learning organizations. Additionally, these findings extend the existing research on managerial behavior taxonomies by providing a micro-level investigation of behaviors that are manifested in coaching, or facilitating learning by exemplary managers participating in this study. There is a growing body of literature on coaching, however, it tends to be atheoretical (Popper & Lipshitz, 1992), and only a few empirical studies have been conducted which examine what good coaches do, and the relationship between preferred models of coaching and improved performance (Graham,

Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993, 1994; Marsh, 1992). This study fills this void by providing researchers and practitioners with thirteen behavior sets that define the role of coach, or facilitator of learning. Some of these behavior sets represent components of existing coaching models, however, a few new behavior sets expand the concept of coaching.

The critically anchored behavior sets identified in this study offer a foundation upon which other researchers can build so that the management practices required to build learning organizations can be expanded. To overcome some of the limitations of this research, the researcher recommends that future research include using manager and employee dyads as an approach to obtaining critical incidents so that employees' perceptions of the ways in which their managers may facilitate learning can also be incorporated into the behavior sets that define the role of coach, or facilitator of learning. Expanding the number of participating managers and organizations to generate a larger number of critical incidents may also be a way to further develop a richer classification of behavior sets. Ultimately, incorporating these behavior sets into a survey instrument to assess how pervasive coaching is, and the predominant behavioral strategies used by managers in a broader array of corporations would be a logical next step.

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Operationalizing the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence

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This paper identifies the processes utilized to validate The Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence (Peterson, 1998) which focuses on the role of the organization in integrating employees into the organization, and in turn, is hypothesized to impact their persistence. The Organizational Integration Survey (OIS) for Managerial Employees was developed to operationalize the Model, providing Human Resource Development professionals with a theoretical foundation for expanding their role in the organization-- developing strategies to increase managerial employee integration.

Keywords: Employee Turnover, Organizational Integration Survey, Managerial Persistence

The Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence (Peterson, 1998) was developed to explain managerial employee turnover, particularly that of women and managerial employees of color. This model integrates key components of an organizational model of student attrition (Tinto, 1986) and a variety of employee turnover models (Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Blau & Boal, 1989; Dalessio, Silverman, & Schuck, 1986; Dougherty, Bluedorn, & Keon, 1985; Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Steers & Mowday, 1981). What the employee turnover models have in common are the variables job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. These variables serve as major constructs for much of the theory building and research on employee turnover. Thus the traditional employee turnover models focus on attributes of the individual employee. However, those models tend to neglect the importance of the role of the organization in the decision of employees' to stay with or leave the organization. Peterson's (1998) model acknowledges the key individual attributes of employees identified in the traditional turnover models, but focuses on the role of the organization. The Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence suggests that the organization assumes a major responsibility for creating an environment in which employees perceive a connectedness with the organization to the extent that they intend to persist.

This paper identifies the processes utilized to validate the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence (Peterson, 1998) and describes the development of the survey instrument that will operationalize the model. The theoretical foundation for the model and the first iteration of the model is presented, followed by the processes used to operationalize the model, specifically the development of the survey instrument, establishment of a panel of experts, and analysis of the results of the group feedback session. The refined version of the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence is presented with plans for testing the model. Finally, implications for Human Resource Development practitioners are offered.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical foundation on which the model is based is a student attrition model (Tinto, 1986) that has been validated in a variety of settings, confirming the role of the educational institution in creating an environment in which students perceive that they are integrated into both the academic and social systems of their institution of higher learning. Integration refers to one's sense of connectedness to or belonging in one's organization, developed through experiences in and interactions within the organization. Tinto's (1986) academic attrition model was reconceptualized to acknowledge the role of the external environment (family, friends, employer), particularly for adult learners, in contributing to academic persistence (Schwartz, 1990). It was later determined that a student's career decision-making self-efficacy (confidence in one's ability to engage in information-gathering and decision-making regarding a career) significantly contributed to both social and academic integration (Peterson, 1993) and ultimately to persistence (Peterson & delMas, 1996). It is integration, along with intention to persist which has been found to be the most significant determinant of students' decisions to persist in or depart from their institution. Transferring those findings to an organizational setting to explain employee turnover led to the development of the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence (Peterson, 1998). The purpose of that model was to integrate employee turnover models (which focus on individual attributes) and the student attrition model (which focuses on the role of the organization) to create a model that would result in a stronger explanation of the variance

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in employee turnover. The hypothesis is that employees who perceive they are integrated into the organization are more likely to persist.

Operationalizing the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence

The following processes were utilized to develop the Organizational Integration Survey for Managerial Employees which is intended to operationalize the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence:

1. Development of a draft of a survey instrument with which to measure each of the constructs represented in the model.
2. Establishment of a panel of experts to review and validate the model and draft of the survey instrument and participate in a group feedback session.
3. Analysis of the results of the group feedback session.

Survey Development

Many of the items from the Integration Scale, adapted from Fox (1986) and the Career Decision-Making Survey, adapted from Taylor and Betz (1983) utilized in the Peterson (1993) study which focused on academic and social integration in an institution of higher education adapted to the current survey. For example, questions relating to friendships with other students where adapted to include relationships with co-workers. Questions from the Career Decision-making Survey were adapted to measure the managerial employees' level of confidence in their ability to gather information and make decisions about their careers as well as to measure employees' perceptions of the organization's support for their career development.

Given that base, additional questions were developed for each of the domains of the model. New questions were developed based on turnover literature and from the researchers' experiences in organizations. Each question went through multiple revisions as the survey was restructured and reorganized to represent each of the domains. Approximately 100 questions were included in the original draft of the survey instrument. The variables to be measured by the Organizational Integration Survey for Managerial Employees represent the components of the model and include the following:

- Pre-entry Attributes

Pre-entry attributes reflect the demographic and psychological dimensions of employees prior to joining the organization. These attributes reflect personal characteristics and include demographics, abilities and skills, and career decision-making self-efficacy.

Demographic information (Section I.A. of the survey) includes such characteristics as age, race, gender, and national origin. Abilities refer to educational level and training of employees upon entry into the organization; skills refer to employees' prior work experience (Section I.B. of the survey). Career decision-making self-efficacy (Section II. of the survey) refers to the level of confidence employees have regarding their ability to gather information and make career-related decisions.

- Expectations, Motivation, and Satisfaction (Time 1)

Expectations are the aspirations and valued occupational goals toward which one's activities are directed. Expectations, which predict the likelihood of attaining that desired future, are measured by intentions.

Motivation, often referred to in the context of personality disposition, is measured by goals and commitments. Motivation refers to one's willingness to work toward the attainment of those goals. Goals refer to employees' desired outcomes in the career field in general and within the context of a specific organization in particular. Commitment suggests a pledge of support for a decision made.

In general, satisfaction refers to that which brings gratification or contentment. The myriad factors within and outside an organization which comprise satisfaction are summarized in this model as a single overall satisfaction variable. Thus, Intentions, Goals, Commitment, and Satisfaction comprise Section III of the survey.

- Organizational Experiences

This section (Section IV. of the survey) refers to the experiences and interactions among employees within the organization over a period of time. Those experiences and interactions take place in several contexts, referred to as domains. The model suggests that those interactions take place both formally and informally. Formal experiences are purposely planned interactional events (e.g., formal lines of communication, policies, meetings). Informal experiences tend to be more spontaneous, perhaps serendipitous, opportunities to interact. Formal and informal dimensions are connected, as the opportunities for interactions overlap and often involve the same people (e.g., managers, peers). Thus formal may influence and be influenced by informal experiences and vice versa. Organizational Experiences are represented by the following domains:

Performance Domain. This domain (Section IV.A. of survey) identifies organizational experiences and factors that impact employees' perceptions of their level of performance in the organization. The Performance System includes Job Performance and Interactions with Managers. Factors include perceptions of stress, conflict, support of management, knowledge of job requirements, and performance recognition. Specifically, Job Performance refers to employees' perceptions of their level of performance and competence on the job. Interactions with Managers refers to employees' perceptions of the level of support, concern, and acceptance received from their own manager as well as other managers in the organization.

Organizational Domain. This domain (Section IV.B. of survey) identifies organizational experiences and factors that impact employees' sense of personal belonging in the organization. The organizational system includes opportunities for social interactions with peer groups and co-workers. Factors include organization-supported activities and social events, organizational support of personal development, and interactions and relationships, both personal and professional, among co-workers. Specifically, Social Aspects refers to perceptions of the level of organizational support for the social interaction and personal development of employees, as demonstrated by the type and scope of activities provided by the organization. Interactions with Co-workers refers to employees' perception of their belonging based on the scope and type of interactions between and among co-workers (other than one's immediate supervisor) and peers in the organization.

Career Domain. This domain (Section IV.C. of survey) refers to experiences and factors that impact employees' perceptions of their opportunities to create, develop, and embark upon a career path. Specifically, Information Gathering refers to employees' perception of their opportunities within the organization to obtain information about careers in general as well as information related to their specific career path. Decision-Making refers to employees' perception of opportunities to consider options and make decisions related to their career.

Extra-organizational Domain. The model also acknowledges the reciprocal impact of employees' external systems (e.g., family, community, friends) on the internal organizational system and the importance of organizational support to help employees balance this work, family, and community aspect of their lives. Specifically, External Support (Section IV.D. of survey) refers to the level of support that people outside the organization who are important to employees provide to the employees regarding their organizational responsibilities. Organizational Support refers to organizational experiences and activities that support the balance between organizational and external commitments, such as the employees' responsibilities to family, community, friends, education, military, and/or religious or spiritual affiliations.

- Integration

This variable is the central focus of the model and is measured by the survey. Integration refers to employees' sense of connectedness to or belonging in the organization developed through the experiences and interactions with the organization within the Performance Domain, Organizational Domain, Career Domain, and Extra-organizational Domain. If the results of those interactions are positive, it is expected that employees will perceive a greater sense of integration.

- Expectations, Motivation, and Satisfaction (Time 2)

While an employee comes to an organization with certain background characteristics, intentions, goals and commitments, and general levels of satisfaction, what experiences and opportunities for interaction the organization provides is hypothesized to impact the level of integration in each of the domains noted. Thus it is expected that employees' expectations, motivation, and satisfaction regarding their employment in the organization will develop over time. Thus, Intentions, Goals, Commitment, and Satisfaction comprise Section V. of the survey.

Persistence Outcome

The employees' developed intentions, goals, commitment, and satisfaction, together with integration (Performance Integration, Organizational Integration, Career Integration, and Extra-organizational Integration) will ultimately impact employees' decisions to stay in or depart from the organization. This variable will be measured at the end of six months.

Panel of Experts

Representatives from business and industry, comprising a panel of experts, were identified and asked to participate in a group feedback session regarding the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence and the Organizational Integration Survey for Managerial Employees described above. The finalized draft of the survey, together with a cover letter to identify the purpose of the group feedback session, a copy of the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence, and an explanation of each domain of the model were sent to each member of the panel of experts.

Representatives from the following organizations comprised the panel of experts: Ceridian, Norwest/Wells Fargo Banks, Cargill, Dayton Hudson Corporation, Norwest Funding Incorporated, Personnel Decisions International, and the Carlson School of Management at the University of Minnesota. The experts held such titles as Vice President of Human Resource Development, Director of Human Resource Development, Organization Development Specialist, and Regional Personnel Director.

Experts agreed to participate in a 90-minute group feedback session held in the Executive Development Center of the Carlson School of Management at the University of Minnesota. Participants were charged with the responsibility, having had the materials for two weeks prior to the group feedback session, to (1) eliminate repetitive or unnecessary questions, (2) reword ambiguous questions, and (3) suggest new questions for each of the domains within the Organizational Experiences section of the model. They also were asked to evaluate the model and provide feedback on the overall survey.

After the initial welcome and introductions, each participant was assigned a primary section of the survey and asked for the first 15 minutes to focus their notes, based also on their previous analysis, on that section. They were then broken into small groups representing their section of the survey, and asked to come to a consensus in 50 minutes regarding each question in that section. The whole group was reconvened for the final 20 minutes in order to (1) provide input into the other sections of the survey, (2) discuss the merits and shortcomings of the overall survey, and (3) question and critique the components of the model.

The researchers did not participate vocally in the feedback session, but recorded observations and took notes on the content of the discussions. In addition, notes from each of the participants in the panel of experts were collected.

Group Feedback Session

Notes from the individuals who comprised the panel of experts and the group feedback session were reviewed and analyzed. This analysis yielded information that resulted in deletions of questions, changes to current questions, and the addition of new questions. For example, questions within the Organizational Domain were added to address employees' perceived level of camaraderie in the organization. Some of the questions designed to address both personal and professional development issues within each of the domains were merged where to do so made sense. However, it also made sense to revise entire categories of the model for the express purpose of differentiating between those two aspects of development.

The general consensus of the panel of experts was favorable, and the feedback from the group session provided valuable information that allowed the survey to be shortened (one of the goals) without compromising the integrity of the domains that comprise the model. Thus the revisions to the model, while important, were minor.

Refinement of the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence and Revision of the Organizational Integration Survey for Managerial Employees

The revised Organizational Integration Survey (OIS) for Managerial Employees contains 86 items. Each section, except Section I (demographics) is based on a 5-point Likert Scale. The 86 items are categorized as follows:

- Section I. Personal Characteristics
  - A. Demographics-- 6 questions
  - B. Educational/Professional Experience-- 9 questions
- Section II. Career Decision-Making
  - A. Information Gathering-- 5 questions
  - B. Decision-Making-- 3 questions
- Section III. Intention, Goals, Commitment, & Satisfaction-- 5 questions
- Section IV. Organizational Experiences
  - A. Performance Attributes
    - Job Performance-- 9 questions
    - Interactions with Managers-- 10 questions
  - B. Organizational Attributes
    - Social Aspects-- 8 questions
    - Interactions with Co-workers-- 10 questions
  - C. Career Aspects
    - Information Gathering-- 4 questions
    - Decision Making-- 5 questions
  - D. Extra-organizational Aspects
    - External Support-- 2 questions
    - Organizational Support-- 5 questions
- Section V. Intention, Goals, Commitment, & Satisfaction-- 5 questions

Figure 1 includes a sampling of the 50 questions included in the Organizational Experiences section of the Organizational Integration Survey for Managerial Employees.

Performance Attributes	
Job Performance	*Interactions with Managers*
• I have been recognized for high level performance in addition to my performance reviews. • Overall, I believe I have the appropriate skills to perform in my position. • Others within this organization appear to be satisfied with my work.	• I would feel comfortable discussing work-related issues with my current manager. • I would feel comfortable discussing work-related issues with other managers above me. • My current manager generally is accessible.

Organizational Attributes	
Social Aspects	*Interactions with Co-workers*
• My current manager genuinely is interested in my *personal* growth and development. • This organization celebrates employees' achievements. • This organization sponsors work-related activities of personal interest to employees (e.g., professional seminars, wellness programs).	• It has not been difficult to meet and make friends with other employees in this organization. • There is a sense of camaraderie in this organization. • My co-workers and I support each other in reaching our professional goals.

Career Aspects	
Information Gathering	*Decision-making*
• There are *formal* opportunities to gather information about careers and/or career paths in this organization. • There are *informal* opportunities to gather information about careers and/or career paths in this organization. • This organization encourages employees to become knowledgeable about their careers in general.	• This organization has helped me make decisions regarding my career. • Employees in this organization are consulted about career decisions that affect them. • This organization has helped me achieve my career goals.

Extra-organizational Aspects	
External Support	*Organizational Support*
• People outside this organization who are important to me are understanding of my professional demands. • People outside this organization who are important to me help me balance my personal and professional goals.	• This organization supports employees in their endeavors to balance personal and professional responsibilities. • This organization is considerate toward the interaction between work, community, and family.

Figure 1. Sample questions from the Organizational Integration Survey (OIS) for managerial employees.

Testing the Model

The next phase of this research to operationalize the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence requires testing the survey. The pilot test will be conducted with managerial employees in a large Minnesota based organization. The pilot test will determine the preliminary reliability of the instrument. Given a large enough sample, exploratory factor analysis will be conducted to determine the cohesiveness of the constructs as they are currently identified.

Once the revisions from the pilot test and the factor analysis are complete, the survey will be administered to a all female managers, all managers of color, and a random sample of Caucasian male managers in 12 randomly selected Minnesota-based organizations, categorized by size. The survey will be conducted with two groups of managerial employees. The first group of managerial employees comprises newcomers to the organization who, in Phase 1 of the study, will complete the Pre-Entry Attributes and Expectations, Motivation, and Satisfaction sections of the survey. In six months, Phase 2 of the study, they will receive the Organizational Experiences Section to measure their level of integration as well as a repeat of the Expectations, Motivation, and Satisfaction Section in order to compare their intention, goals, commitment, and satisfaction at entry with their developed intention, goals, commitment, and satisfaction.

The second group of participants represent employees who have been with the organization for more than three months. These participants will receive the following sections of the survey in Phase 1: Pre-Entry Attributes, Expectations, Motivation, and Satisfaction, and Organizational Experiences. In six months, Phase 2, they will receive a repeat of the Expectations, Motivation, and Satisfaction Section. During the six months of the study, every effort will be made to contact respondents who depart from the organization in order to collect Phase 2 data.The revised Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence is shown in figure 2:

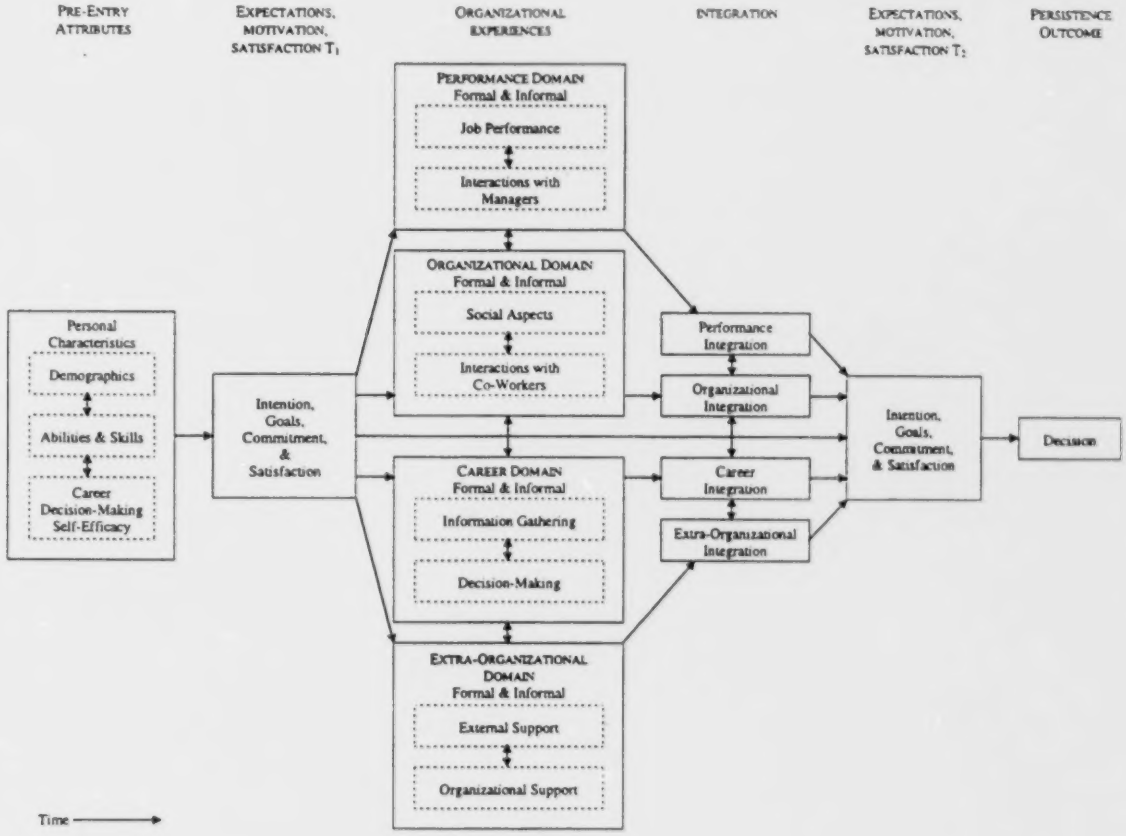
Implications for Human Resource Development

The Organizational Integration Survey for Managerial Employees was developed to operationalize the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence. The survey included personal characteristics and elements of traditional turnover models, particularly intentions, goals, commitment, and satisfaction, as well as items to measure the perceived level of performance integration, organizational integration, career integration, and extra-organizational integration, each a function of the composite role of the organization. Results of the survey, if found to be reliable, could have implications for the Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence, particularly its applicability in explaining an employee's perceived level of integration in the organization, which in turn is expected to impact the employees' decisions to persist in or depart from the organization.

Pending successful research outcomes, Human Resource Development professionals will have a theoretical foundation for expanding their role in the organization to develop strategies to increase managerial employee

integration. Thus the outcome is an alignment between the goals of human development and those of the organization by contributing to increased managerial employee persistence and decreased turnover.

Figure 2. Organizational Model of Managerial Employee Persistence



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Critical Thinking, Developmental Learning, and Adaptive Flexibility in Organizational Leaders

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Organizational leaders in today's global marketplace must continually make decisions, solve problems, and chart effective courses of action to ensure that their companies survive and flourish. The ability to think critically is essential for today's leaders, yet leaders are often unable to do so. This study examined how developmental learning and adaptive flexibility relate to the level of critical thinking in a sample of organizational leaders. Results showed years of education to be the only significant predictor of critical thinking in the leaders studied. Adaptive flexibility scores indicated minimal levels of reflective observation suggesting automatization of decision-making. The factor analysis of developmental learning experiences identified several factors that characterize the developmental learning of the leaders studied. The theoretical and practical significance of the findings is discussed.

Keywords: Critical Thinking, Leadership Development, Workplace Learning

Critical Thinking

Critical thinking is reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on what to think or do. It requires an ability to recognize problems, gather pertinent information, interpret data, appraise evidence, and to evaluate lines of thinking, points of view, and personal insights that might contribute to the framing of logical, effective, reality-based action (Pierce, 1990). Research on critical thinking describes how individuals think about and solve complex problems. Critical thinking cuts to the heart of effective managerial work. A leader with critical thinking abilities will make better decisions and effect action of enlarged scope and heightened quality (Neumann, 1989).

Workplace Developmental Learning Events

John Dewey's (1916) early work on cognitive development suggests that challenging and/or disorienting experiences stimulate the development of thinking ability. In numerous studies of successful leaders researchers at the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) in Greensboro, NC, have determined that developmental learning occurs primarily through work experiences, not in formal training programs, and that successful corporations emphasize job challenge for developing managers (McCall et al., 1988; McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott, & Morrow, 1994). In fact, the "developmental potential of a work experience is driver by the challenges it presents" (McCall et al., 1988, p. 8). Successful leaders' careers are marked by a variety of specific challenging work assignments and disorienting experiences, like starting an operation from scratch, making a huge leap in scope of responsibility, or turning around a business in deep trouble. This study hypothesized that challenging workplace learning events would stimulate the development of critical thinking skills.

Adaptive Flexibility

The "high-tech" arena of the global marketplace requires that organizations be able to respond flexibly to rapid changes in conditions and circumstances. For this reason, contemporary organizations need leaders who can adapt to and learn from the challenges encountered when confronting change. In his theory of integrative development, Kolb (1984) states that the ability to respond flexibly to change has a strong influence on a person's adaptation and growth over the life span. This trait is called "adaptive flexibility." People with high degrees of adaptive flexibility are readily able to adapt their style of learning to the demands of the learning situation. An adaptively flexible

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leader can more successfully manage in the global marketplace than a leader who is not adaptively flexible (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson, 1993).

Based upon research conducted to date, variables associated with the development of critical thinking ability in leaders are intelligence, age, years of education, and years of experience, as depicted in the unshaded portions of the "Individual Characteristics" component of the diagram in Figure 1. This research study proposes the addition of an additional individual characteristic, adaptive flexibility (Kolb, 1984).

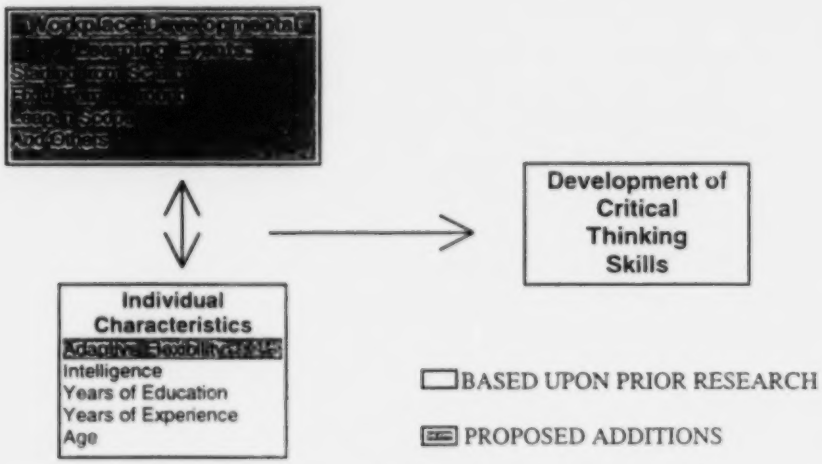

Figure 1. Framework of factors associated with critical thinking skills development.

The hypotheses tested were: 1) there will be no significant combination of independent variables: number of workplace developmental learning events, average perceived significance of workplace developmental learning events, and individual characteristics (adaptive flexibility, years of experience as a leader, years of education beyond high school, and age), that predict the level of critical thinking, 2) there will be no combination of factors that describe the workplace developmental learning events of the leaders studied, and 3) there will be no combination of workplace developmental learning factors that predict the average perceived significance of learning of the leaders studied.

Methodology

Three instruments were used to measure the study's variables. Critical thinking was measured by the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA) which consists of 80 items divided into five scales: inference, recognition of assumptions, deduction, interpretation, and evaluation of arguments (Watson & Glaser, 1980). Workplace developmental learning events were measured by an adaptation of "Section V: Your Background" of the Job Challenge Profile (McCauley, 1991) called the Experiences Checklist which measured the level of significance on a five point Likert scale of up to 43 workplace learning experiences. Adaptive Flexibility was measured using Kolb's (1980) Adaptive Style Inventory, a 48 item, forced-choice, self-report instrument consisting of four scales: concrete experience adaptive flexibility (CEAF), reflective observation adaptive flexibility (ROAF), abstract conceptualization adaptive flexibility (ACAF), and active experimentation adaptive flexibility (AEAF). A one page sheet that appeared as the cover to the Experiences Checklist assessed demographic variables. Instrument packets were distributed to 341 leaders who had attended CCL's five day Leadership Development Program during 1993; 119 leaders (35%) chose to participate in the study.

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Results

The research sample of 119 people consisted of 88 males (74%) and 31 females (26%). The mean age of study participants was 42.9 years (SD=7.2); average number of years of education beyond high school was 5.5 years (SD=1.9); mean number of years of direct supervisory experience was 12.3 years (SD=7.1). With respect to organizational level, 25 (21%) were executive-level managers and 93 (78%) were mid-level managers. The mean critical thinking score of 67 out of 80 (SD=7.3) placed this sample at the 85th percentile compared to a national sample of sales representatives. The average participant had experienced 22 of the 43 workplace developmental learning events assessed and considered the learning from these events highly significant. The average subject was moderately adaptively flexible, yet during learning or problem solving tended to engage in less than average reflective observation. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for the variables critical thinking, developmental learning, and adaptive flexibility are summarized in Table 1. The intercorrelations between these three variables were low (r=-.11 to r=.08), indicating that the three variables are independent.

Table 1.
Total Sample Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Instrument Scales: Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WG), Experiences Checklist (EC), and Adaptive Style Inventory (ASI) (n=119)

	Mean	SD	WG	EC	ASI
Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal[a]	67.1	7.3	–	-.07	.08
Experiences Checklist[b]	21.8	5.1		–	-.11
Adaptive Style Inventory[c]	15.9	3.9			–

[a]Possible score of 0-80. [b]Possible score of 0-43 [c]Possible score of 0-32.

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to determine the independent variables that predict critical thinking skills in the leaders studied. The analysis showed that the only significant predictor of critical thinking score was years of education beyond high school ($r = .31$, $p < .001$). The regression analysis indicated that years of education accounted for 10% of the variance in critical thinking score ($p < .001$), a small effect size.

A factor analysis procedure with oblique rotation was used to determine the combination of factors that describe the workplace developmental learning events reported by the leaders studied. The factor analysis identified six factors that describe the reported workplace developmental learning events of the leaders studied: (1) Career Crisis, (2) High Stakes, (3) Management Development Opportunities, (4) Reduction Decisions, (5) Mentor or Role Model, and (6) Discrimination. Factors 1, 2, 4, and 5 resemble factors identified in several CCL studies (Eichinger & Lombardo, 1990; McCall et al., 1988; McCauley et al., 1994). Management Development Opportunities and Discrimination are new results.

The correlation matrix of the six factor scale scores and average perceived significance of learning showed significant correlations between High Stakes and average perceived significance (r=.27, p<.01) and between Management Development Opportunities and average perceived significance (r=.56, p<.001). A stepwise multiple regression showed that Management Development Opportunities accounted for 31% of the variance in average perceived significance rating, a large effect size.

Discussion

The results of this study support the results of previous studies of learning in leaders that concluded that the most important lessons are learned from on-the-job experiences (Baldwin & Padgett, 1993). The results of this study indicate that formal education was the only variable significantly related to critical thinking. This result supports previous research studies that found critical thinking correlated with education (Pearson, 1991). Both challenging workplace experiences and adaptive flexibility were not related to critical thinking.

With the lowered levels of reflection (i.e., low ROAF scores) responses to situations and dilemmas at hand may have been "automatic," reinforcing previous learning when the potential for new learning and development existed. The Watson-Glaser concept of critical thinking is narrowly focused and restricted. Results of this study show that WGCTA critical thinking is logic-based, single-loop (Schon 1987), instrumental and weak sense (Paul, 1984) critical thinking. Schon (1987) describes critical thinking as a process whereby the individual reflects on actions and

thought processes, calling into question underlying assumptions. A closer analysis of the items on the WGCTA shows that correct answers can be determined by the rules of logic. No reflectivity is needed.

Reflective judgment is a structurally based cognitive ability based upon levels of cognitive schema (King & Kitchener, 1994). Reflective judgment ability is necessary for solving ill-structured problems, e.g., the kind of real-life problems encountered in the workplace, particularly by challenging or disorienting experiences (King & Kitchener, 1994). Measuring reflective judgment rather than critical thinking may have been more appropriate to the purposes of this study.

Piaget (1972) uses the term schema or schemata to describe the framework onto which incoming sensory data can and must fit. Schema are mental maps that enable individuals to orient themselves within their experiential terrain. As an individual has new experiences the schematic framework constantly changes through activation of the assimilative/accommodative process. In this study there was no way of testing or measuring whether the 43 workplace learning events measured on the Experiences Checklist were truly developmental. To what degree the Experiences Checklist actually measured developmental learning is uncertain.

Conclusions

The results of this study provided only partial support to the model for developing critical thinking in organizational leaders proposed in Figure 1. Results of this study suggest that the development of critical thinking is a more complex process than that illustrated in Figure 1.

Based upon the results of this study and upon a follow-up review of the literature relative the study's outcomes, a revised model was developed that more accurately depicts the developmental learning process of leaders through workplace learning experiences. The framework encompasses the development of both critical thinking and reflective judgment.

Figure 2 illustrates the revised model for critical thinking and reflective judgment development in organizational leaders. The model consists of two paths or tracks: (1) a confirmatory relearning path corroborating an existing model of meaning, and (2) a developmental learning path resulting in a revised model of meaning.

Confirmatory Relearning

The confirmatory relearning process is triggered when the leader perceives a match between the current situation and past experience. The individual responds automatically and no "new learning" takes place. This is called the conduit effect (Sheckley & Keeton, 1997). The experience is constructed as a well-structured problem. Well-structured problems can be solved using critical thinking skills (King & Kitchener, 1994) and under stressful conditions (Fiedler & Link, 1994). The confirmatory relearning process results in corroborating the existing model of meaning.

Developmental Learning

The developmental learning process is activated when the individual perceives either a partial match or a mismatch between the current situation and past experience. The hierarchical structure of the individual's "world view" or "model of meaning" is abandoned or altered in some way. The reflective system is activated and new learning takes place. This is called the accordion effect (Sheckley & Keeton, 1997). If the current problem or circumstance is viewed as novel, the leader will construct the experience as an ill-structured problem with its attendant ambiguity and uncertainty. Ill-structured problems are best solved using reflective judgment (King & Kitchener, 1994) and under conditions of low stress (Fiedler & Link, 1994). The developmental learning process results in the creation of a revised model of meaning.

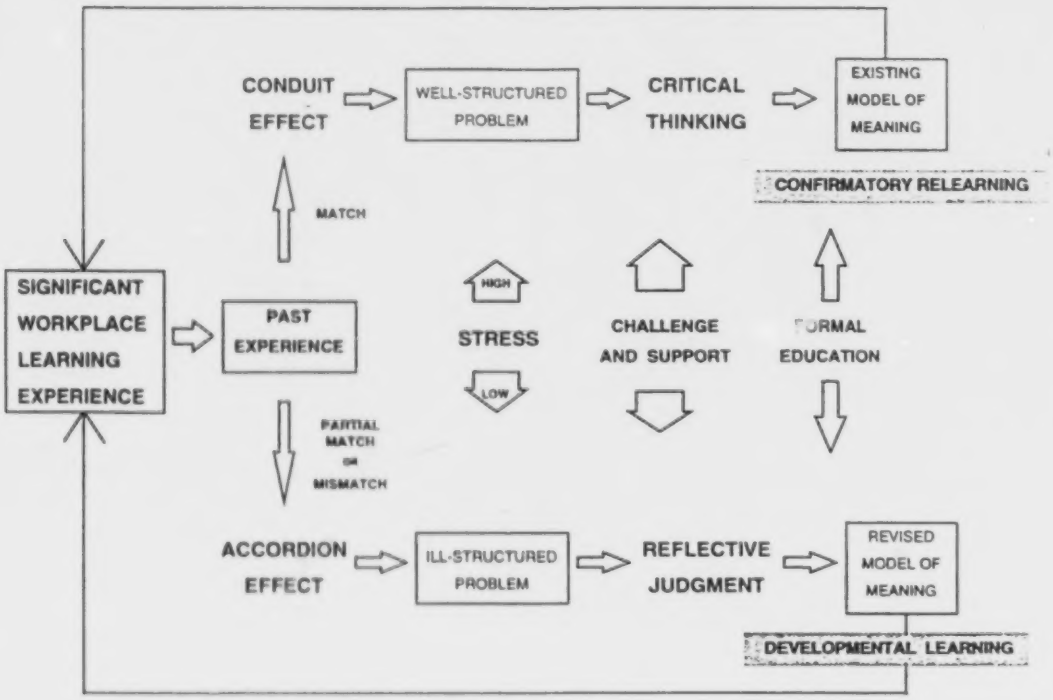

Figure 2. Revised model for critical thinking and reflective judgment development in organizational leaders.

Implications for Practice

The results of this study support the results of prior studies that concluded that significant learning for leaders comes from experience, from learning by doing the job, and from job challenges (Baldwin & Padgett, 1993; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1989; McCall et. al., 1988; McCauley, 1986; McCauley et. al., 1994). Giving challenging job assignments such as creating and managing change can create the conditions for significant learning and development.

Results of this study support Eichinger and Lombardo's (1990) contention that courses that focus on self-awareness are important to leader development. Seventy-six percent of this study's participants rated their learning from receiving feedback on their managerial style as very or extremely significant. Receiving direct feedback from peers, superiors, and subordinates can often trigger reflective learning.

Stress can negatively impact performance in leaders (Fiedler & Link, 1994). Creating a workplace culture that is supportive, is accepting of mistakes, and values well-thought-out decisions and strategies can reduce stress.

Encouraging the broader use of group discussion, reflection, and decision making can stimulate increased reflectivity in organizations, more adequate analysis of the issues, and better decisions. Also, encouraging leaders to look for the unique characteristics in a particular situation that may initially look mundane can often lead to new learning and to the choice of a more adequate course of action.

The type of reflection currently gaining popularity in organizations targets learning that results in increasingly effective action by individuals and groups. Reflection also leads to more objectivity, self-confidence, a heightened sense of personal responsibility, increased tolerance for ambiguity and paradox, the unlocking of creativity and intuition, enlightened action, and a more balanced life (Sherman, 1994). Learning to be reflective takes commitment, time, and effort. The sense of focus, clarity, contentment, and effectiveness that are demonstrated outcomes of reflectivity are worthwhile outcomes for organizational leaders to strive to achieve.

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